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ATL-TR-64-83

(U) HYPERVELOCITY IMPACT EXPERIMENTS

Technical Report No. ATL-TR-64-83 December 1964 Project No. 9650

Directorate of Armament Development Det 4, Research and Technology Division Air Force Systems Command Eglin Air Force Base. Fiorida

(Prepared under Contract AF 08 035)-2783 by General Motors Corporation, GM Defense Research Laboratories, Santa Marbara, California)

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ABSTRACT

This final report describes the experimental results of a program conducted under Contract AF08(635)-2783, "Hypervelocity Impact Experiments," to investigate the vulnerability of multiple sheet thin target assemblies to hypervelocity projectiles impacting at both normal and oblique angles. This study of penetration, perforation and spalling was conducted using an accelerated-reservoir light-gas gun to launch projectiles to velocities ranging from 5000 fps to 25,500 fps. Projectile incident angles ranged from 90 degrees (normal) to 10 degrees.

Target damage was evaluated in terms of hole area, depth of penetration and affected area. Damage was correlated with impact velocity, impact angle, projectile variables, and target variables.

This report has been reviewed and is approved.

CAVID K. DEAN Colonel, USAF Chief, Meanons Division

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LIST OF SYMBOLS

A ₁	Shield perforation or hole area
A _o	Normal projectile area, $A_0 = \frac{\pi d^2}{4}$
α	Shield angle of incidence – smallest angle measured from the shield to the projectile flight line
α ₁	Shield angle below which projectile ricochet occurs and above which perforation occurs
or*	Shield angle below which there is no subsequent damage from in-line spray particles, i.e., no target damage in the direction of the projectile flight line
ij	Target sheet angle of incidence - smallest angle measured from the target to the projectile flight line
BHN	Brineil Hardness Number
γ	Projectile-spray semi-angle
θ	cpali-spra, semi-angle
đ	Normal projectile diameter
D	Perforation diameter in normal shield
D _{major}	Maximum length of the shield perforation
Dminor	Maximum width of the shield perforation
$ ho_{\mathbf{p}}$	Projectile material density
ρ _T	Target (shield) material density
t _s	Normal sheet thickness
P	Penetration



SECTION I

Of current interest to the Air Force in their Space Program is the investigation of non-nuclear kill mechanisms from both offensive and defensive viewpoints. Offensively, this interest has led to enhanced lethality concepts for warhead development. Defensively, it has led to advances in the science of spacecraft design. One of the problems is the vulnerability of spacecraft to impacts of hypervelocity fragments, since such a collision could result in the defeat of a mission. It is necessary, therefore, to devise means of protecting a spacecraft from these fragments while remaining aware of the penalties involved in increasing the vehicle gross weight or unduly complicating its structure.

Although many configurations of vehicle hulls have been proposed, the foremost, and one of the original concepts, is that of a thin outer shell separated from and protecting the main hull. (1) In theory, any meteoroid or warhead fragment that impacted this outer shell would vaporize before it could shelf ate the main hull—in practice, however, this appears generally possible only at very high velocities, for the actual physical mechanism of impact that has been observed at typical encounter velocities does not include vaporization of fragments. (2)

Figure 1 is an artist's representation of the impact of a solid sphere against such a thin target, the protective outer shell. The projectile strikes the target and, because of the intense pressures developed, generates a shock wave in both projectile and target. These shocks cause the projectile to break up into a multitude of tiny tragments, producing an expanding bubble of debris with a velocity component normal to the shield that is generally less than the velocity of the original projectile. The result of these factors of fragment spread and velocity reduction is that the protected hull is subjected to less momentum and energy loading per unit area than an unprotected hull.

While it is true that this design concept should reduce the vehiclevulnerability, the mode and magnitude of impact damage still required study. Since the number of possible target configurations is virtually unlimited, a typical multisheet thin target assembly was chosen to be suijected to impacts of specific projectiles under specific encounter conditions.



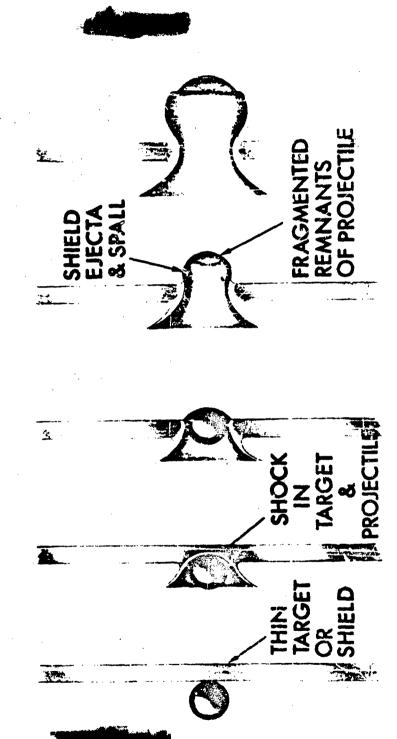


Fig. 1 Projectile and Shield Behavior Upon Impact of a Solid Sphere with Thin Target



The basic thin target assembly consisted of two 2014-T6 aluminum sheets spaced twelve inches apart. The experimental variables were those of the projectile (material, mass, velocity, angle of impact) and those of the target assembly (material, intersheet spacing, angle of impact).

Other tests, conducted concurrently, were to investigate the phenomenon of impact flash and its potential use as a hit director and target discriminator.



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SECTION II TECHNICAL ACTIVITIES AND RESULTS

2.1 Experimental Facility

The experiments in this program were conducted at GM Defense Research Laboratories (Ref. 3) on Ballistics Ranges 'C' and 'D'. The launchers were respectively, a .22-caliber smooth bore powder gun or a 20-mmaccelerated-reservoir light-gas gun (ARLGG), and a .30-caliber ARLGG. The powder gun was used when velocities below 10,000 fps were required, and the ARLGG, guns were used for velocities above 10,000 fps. The .30-caliber ARLGG. however, was capable of launching only low weight projectiles (m<0.3 gm) at velocities in excess of 25,000 fps; consequently, most of the tests were made with the 20-mm ARLGG. This gun and the associated range complex are shown schematically in Fig. 2. Following is a brief description.

2. 1. 1 20-mm ARLG Gun

The accelerated-reservoir light-gas gun was selected because it maintains a constant pressure at the base of the model during the launching cycle. This constant base pressure produces a constant, yet moderate, acceleration of the model throughout its travel down the barrel. Hence, the model achieves a high muzzle velocity without being loaded to the point of deformation or failure. This type of gun, then, is the logical choice for launching fragile models or saboted projectiles of high mass and high density.

2.1.2 Surge-Tank/Flight-Range/Velocity-Chamber Complex

This complex provides, in order:

- (1) Tanks that confine the muzzle blast and allow the high-pressure, high-temperature driver gas to expand and cool
- (2) Tanks that contain a controlled atmosphere in which the subot separates from the model. The downrange end of the flight range is the subot trap where the sabot petals are stopped, allowing the model to proceed aione.
- (3) Tanks that house spark shadowgraph instrumentation (Fig. 3a) to establish projectile velocity, orientation, and integrity during each firing. Two successive spark shadowgraph pictures of the projectile, taken along its trajectory over a distance of eighteen inches (Fig. 3b), are combined with the elapsed times obtained from chronographs to determine velocities with an accuracy of ± 1 percent. The spark shadowgraphs also show the flight prientation of the projectile, record whether it has separated properly from its sabot, and establish its trajectory.

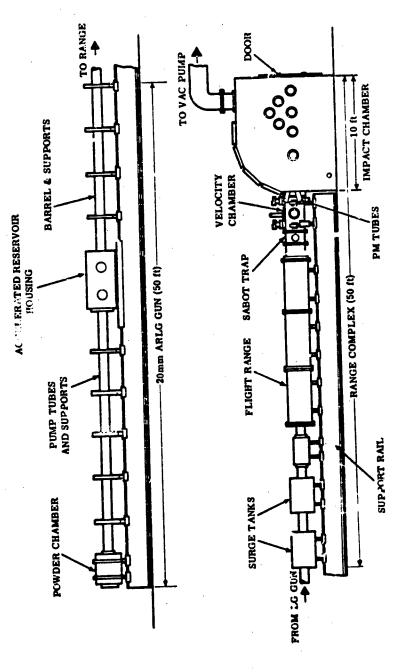
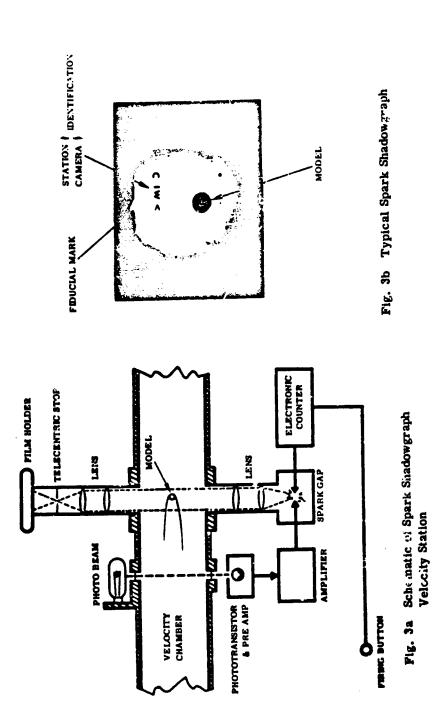


Fig. 2 Schematic of Ballistic Range 'C'



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2. 1. 3 lmpact Chamber

This chamber was specially constructed to house the large target sheets needed to study spray distributions when the distance between shield and target is large. The impact chamber has numerous viewing ports to accommodate the instrumentation, and the rear wall of the chamber is a full-size door to allow easy installation and removal of the targets. The targets are held by a mount attached to the floor and walls. The surge-tank/flight-range/velocity-chamber/impact-chamber assembly is vacuum-sealed and can be evacuated to pressures of less than 10⁻³ torr, equivalent to a pressure-altitude of approximately 300,000 feet.

The impact of the projectile and the reaction of the target can be observed by both the 0.07-microsecond, two-channel flash radiography system and the 1.4-million-frames-per-second Beckman-Whitley framing camera. The choice of instrumentation depends upon the specific observations to be made of a given shot. The impact flash is monitored by both photomultiplier (PM) tubes and an indium-antimonide (InSo) infrared detector. The PM tubes are sensitive to the following wavelengths: (a) 1800A to 5500A, (b) 4500A to 10,000A, (c) 5940A to 10,000A. The InSb detector is sensitive to radiation in the region from 1 to 5 microns. These detectors are calibrated to measure radiation in watts per unit-solid-angle.

Preliminary firings were carried out prior to the data rounds to develop sabot designs and deflection techniques and to optimize the internal ballistics of the gun operating cycle. These firings also served as proof rounds for the impact chamber instrumentation.

2. 2 Experimental Results

2. 2. 1 Experimental Program

The experimental program, as stated, consisted of firing specific hypervelocity projectiles into a typical multisheet target assembly under specific encounter conditions. This target assembly is shown schematically in Fig. 5, which also details the experimental variables.

A comprehensive synopsis of the raw impact data obtained during the investigation is attached to this report as Appendix I. Not included in the appendix is reduced data from a complimentary study involving hypervelocity impacts at angles of incidence ranging from 2 to 15 degrees, although this additional information has been included to extend the scope of the discussion of the experimental results. The impact flash data is attached as appendix II. Table 1 Lists typical physical and mechanical properties of the projectile and target materials.



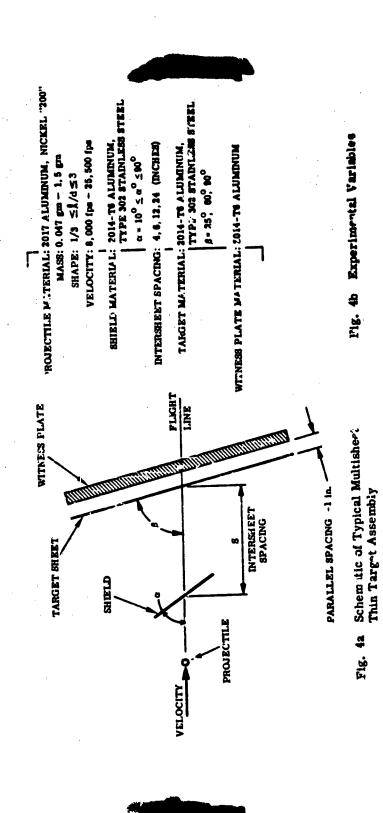


Fig. 42

TYPICAL MATERIAL PROPERTIES PHYSICAL AND MECHANICAL

	Pr	Projectile Materials	iterials	L	Target Materials	80	
	2017 Aluminun	Nickel "200"	Depleted Uranium	2014-T6 Aluminum	2014-T6 AJST Type 302 Llumiaum Stainless Seel	ASTM Type AZ31B-H24 Magnesium	
Physical properties: Density – lb/cu in. Melting Point – ^O F	0, 101 1200	0. 32 2635	0. 69 2070	0. 101 1200	0. 29 2550 — 259)	0.064 1050 – 1170	
Mechanical properties; Tensile yield strength kpsi Ultimate strength	9	8	35 to 60	80		37	A 9.
Kps1 Hardness	R _B 35	70 70 BHN	75 to 110 R _B 65-90	60 135 BHN	110 R _B 85	45 R _B 20-30	

2. 3 Shield Analysis

Shield damage may be analyzed in many ways, and the resulting data may take many forms. (Ref. 4) For this program, however, only the gross damage has been considered; this is best represented by the perforation area or hole area. A_1 . The holes discussed in this report are those through which a collimated light beam normal to the target plane can be projected onto photosensitive—per.

Typical of the results of this program are the periorations shown in Fig. 5 to demonstrate the effect of a changing angle of incidence, α (all other variables constant). It can be seen that the hole or perforation area, A_1 , increases slowly from its normal value to a peak at an angle of approximately 35 degrees, and then decreases sharply as the angle of incidence is further decreased. It can also be seen that the hole becomes increasingly oval as α is decreased. These results are shown graphically in Fig. 6, where A_1 has been non-dimensionalized by dividing by the normal projectile area A_0 , where

$$A_0 = \frac{\pi d^2}{4}$$
 (d = projectile diameter)

The effect of note shape has been plotted as D_{major}/D_{minor} , where D_{major} is the maximum length of the perforation and D_{minor} is the maximum width. Figure 7 shows the result of tests with the same combination of materials (Al – Al), but with a change in $t_{\rm S}/{\rm d}$ to 0.4 (In Fig. 6, $t_{\rm S}/{\rm d}=0.27$); $t_{\rm S}$ is the shield sheet thickness. It can be seen that the curve here is similar to that of Fig. 6, but it peaks at 45 degrees rather than 35 degrees. Substantial perforations were still evident at angles as low as 10 degrees, which was the final test angle of this series. Figures 8 and 9 demonstrate the effects of the impacts of nickel projectiles against stainless steel and aluminum shields, respectively. Although only three angular conditions have been tested in each case, it is felt that the curves are representative. Figure 8 is similar in shape to that of Halperson (Ref. 5); and Fig. 9 seemingly provides results similar to those of Fig. 10, which involves impacts of depleted uraninum spheres against magnesium shields (from Ref. 6).

The experimental results of Al-Al impacts shown in Figs. 6 and 7 are combined in Fig. 11 to demonstrate the effect of shield thickness than shield damage. Here it can be seen that, in the region $90 < \alpha^0 < 15$, the damage to the thicker sheet is more severe.

To consider the effect of projectile velocity or the extent of shield damage, it is necessary to refer again to the physical description of normal perforation introduced with Fig. 1. At extremely low velocities, the impact does not generate sufficient pressure to initiate the formation of shock waves, producing only elastic or shear waves. Consequently, the projectile

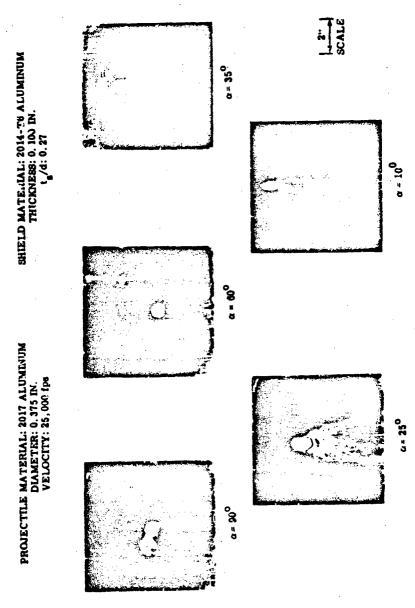


Fig. 5 Typical Shield Perforations - Effect of Varying Angle, Al - Al

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM SHIELD MATERIAL: 2014-T6 ALUMINUM DIAMETER: 0.375 IN. VELOCITY: 25,000 fps $t_g/d: 0.27$

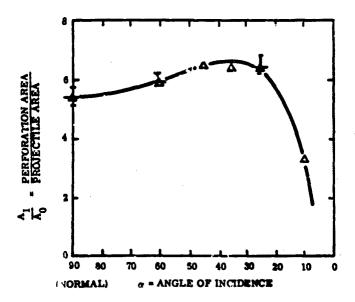


Fig. 6a Area of Perforation

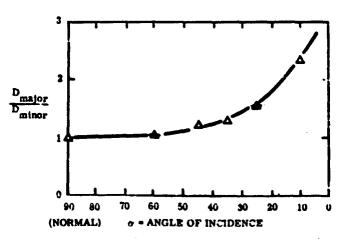


Fig. 6b Shape of Perforation

Fig. 6 Shield Damage, Al \rightarrow Al ($t_g/d = 0.27$, $v \cdot 25,000$ fps)

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM SHIELD MATERIAL: 2014-75 ALUMINUM DIAMETER: 0.25 IN. t_d: 0.40 velocity: 25,500 fps

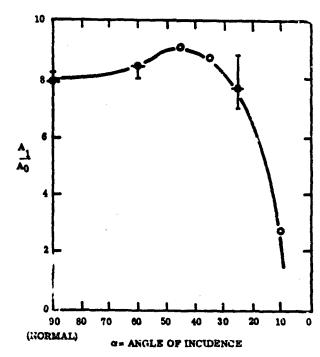


Fig. 7a Area of Perforation

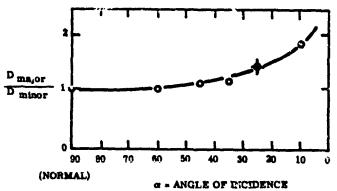


Fig. 7b Shape of Perforation

Fig. 7 Shield Damage, Al \rightarrow Al $(t_g/d = 0.40, v = 25,000 fps)$

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: NICKEL "200" DIAMETER: 0. 107 IN. VELOCITY: 25, 600 fps

SHIELD MATERIAL: TYPE 302 STAINLESS STEEL

t_s/d: 0. 150

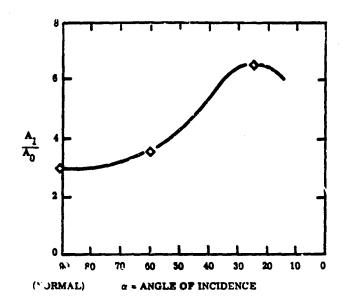


Fig. 8a Area of Perforation

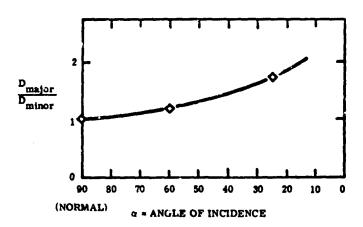


Fig. 8b Shape of Ferferation

Fig. 8 Shield Damage, Ni - Stainless Steel ($t_s/d = 0.15$, v = 25,000 fps)

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: NICKEL "700" SHIELD MATERIAL: 2014-T6 ALUMINUM DIAMETER: 0. 187 IN. t_s/d: 0.534 VELOCITY: 25,000 fps

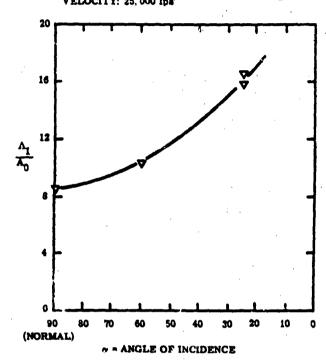
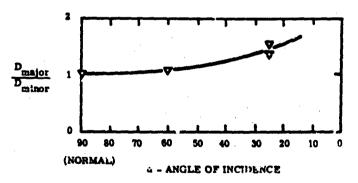


Fig. 9a Area of Perforation



16

Fig. 9b Shape of Perforation

Fig. 9 Shield Damage, Ni \rightarrow Al ($t_g/d = 0.534$, v = 25,000 fps)

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PROJECTILE MATERIAL: DEPLETED URANIUM

DIAMETER: 0. 143 IN.

VELOCITY: 23, 350 fps

SHIELD MATERIAL: AZ31B-H24 MAGNESIUM

THICKS/ECS: 0. 100 IN.

t_/d : 0.70









α= 2⁰

a = 3°

a= 4 1/2

a = 60







~ = 0

α= 12⁰

a= 15°

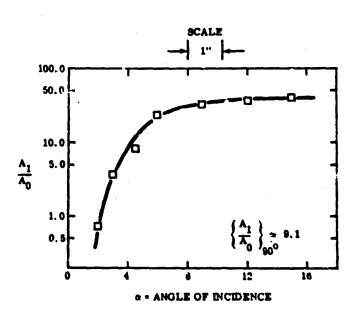


Fig. 10 Typical Shield Perforation - Effect of Varying Angle

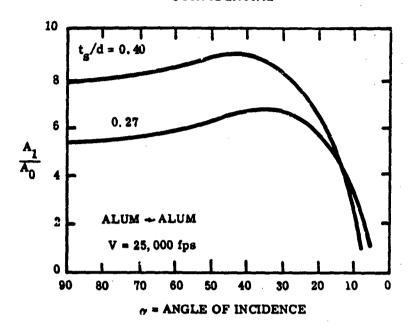


Fig. 11 Shield Damage, Effect of Variation of Sheet Thickness, Constant Velocity

suffers little damage during perforation. For a thick ductile shield, the edge of the hole is thickened due to the plastic flow. (Ref. 7) Brittle materials fail by punching; that is, a disc of approximately projectile size is sheared out of the shield. (Ref. 7) Thin sheets (small $t_{\rm S}/d$) tend to fail by petalling. (Several simplified theories for these various modes of failure are reviewed in Reference 8.) At increased velocity, these elastic or shear waves are replaced by shock waves that result in hypervelocity impact phenomena. Perforations associated with hypervelocity for conditions of normal impact have been treated extensively, both theoretically and experimentally, in Refs. 9 and 10. These demonstrate that the process of fracture of projectile and shield can be interpreted as a multiple-spalling phenomenon which starts at the free curfaces, and that the hole area ratio increases linearly with velocity.

Al - Al normal impacts (Fig. 12) generated during the course of this program compare favorably with those predicted by Equation (1) from Ref. 10, i.e.,

$$\frac{A_1}{A_0} = \left\{ \frac{D}{d} \right\}^2 = \left\{ 0.1372 \text{ v } \left(\frac{t_s}{d} \right) + 0.90 \right\}^2$$
 (Ref. 10).

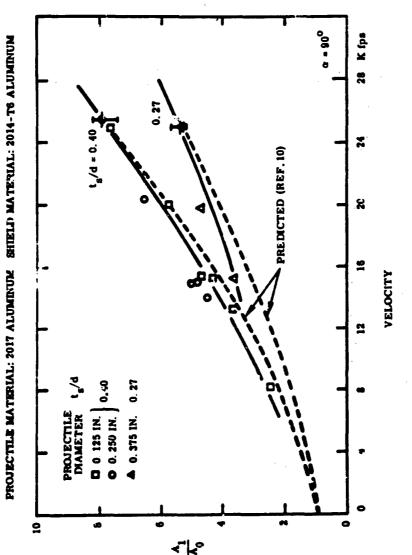


Fig. 12 Shield Damage, α = 90, Effect of Variation of Velocity

where

D = hole diameter in shield

d = projectile diameter

v = impact velocity, kfps

The minor differences, especially at the lower velocities, can be attributed to the dissimilarity in materials tested (the empirical formula was derived for shields of 2024-T3 aluminum) and the dearth of data points to determine the experimental scatter, especially for the thinner targets.

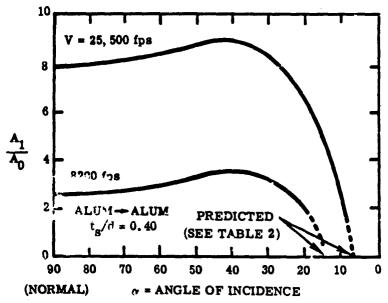


Fig. 13 Shield Damage, Effect of Yariation of Velocity, Constant t_g/d

The data in Fig. 13 presents another aspect of shield damage with respect to velocity change. Even though the velocity here has been decreased from 25,500 fps (data from Fig. 7) to 8200 fps, the characteristic shape of the A_1/A_0 - α curve described previously is unaltered except when $\alpha = 30^\circ$. In this region the slope of the curve is less steep, and although the shield was perforated when $\alpha = 20^\circ$, it was not perforated when $\alpha = 10^\circ$. There is, then, a shield angle that causes the projectile to ricochet so that perforation does not occur. It is interesting to note the correlation between the observed angular region of ricochet-perforation and that predicted by considering the equivalent semi-infinite target penetration, $(P/d)_{\text{Semi } O}$, of the projectile at a given velocity, then applying a thin sheet conversion factor and equating this result. (P/d)thin target, with the apparent thickness of the shield, the target penetration is the direction of the projectile velocity vector (see Fig. 14).

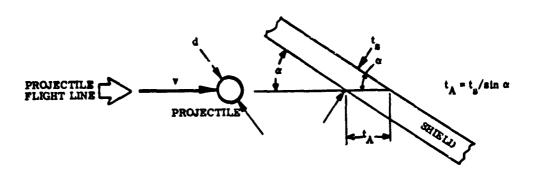


Fig. 14 Schematic of Shield Geometry

Athough several empirical relationships are available to compute $(P/d)_{semi\ O}$, (R.cfs. 11, 12, 13) that of Herrmann and Jones has been chosen because of its low-velocity data fit, i.e.,

$$(P/d)_{\text{semi } \infty} = K_1 (\rho_P/\rho_T)^{2/3} \log_e \left[1 + \left\{ \frac{\rho_T^{2/3} \rho_P^{1/3} v^2}{K_2 \text{ BHN}} \right\} \right]$$
 (Ref. 14)

The relationship for the conversion of semi-infinite target penetrations to those of thin sheets is not well defined, (Refs. 10-16) appearing to be a function of projectile and target material as well as velocity. Therefore, the following relationships were chosen as being representative:

$$(P/d)$$
_{thin target} = 1.5 (P/d) _{semi ∞} (min)
= 2.0 (P/d) _{semi ∞} (max)

As noted, the equating of $(P/d)_{thin\ target}$ to t_A will produce a shield angle below which ricochet occurs and above which perforation occurs. This shield angle in defined as σ_1 .

The results of this equation we shown in Table 2.

Table 2
RICOCHET-PERFORATION CROSSOVER REGION

PROJECTILE			SHIELD	
d .	v	ts	α_1	
(inches)	(fps)	(inches)	Experimental	Predicted
0. 250	25500	0. 100	$\alpha_1 < 10^{\circ}$	$5^{\circ} < \alpha_1 < 8^{\circ}$
0. 125	8200	0. 050	$10^{\circ} < \alpha_1 < 20^{\circ}$	$13^{\circ} < \alpha_1^{\circ} < 18^{\circ}$
0. 375	25100	0. 100	4	90 < 0, < 120
0. 375	25100	0. 100	α ₁ < 10 ⁰	90 < 01 <

Note: α_1 is the shield angle below which ricochet occurs and above which perforation occurs.

Figures 15 and 16 demonstrate the variation of perforation area with velocity for shield angles of 60 degrees and 25 degrees respectively. For comparison, these graphs are replotted to show variation of perforation with respect to velocity for constant t_g/d ; see, for example, Fig. 17a ($t_g/d=0.27$) and Fig. 1 b ($t_g/d=0.40$). Although normal impacts show an essentially linear variation with velocity, this does not seem to be the case for shield angles other than normal. The perforation area increases with velocity, but the rate of increase decreases with increasing velocity. This rate also seems to be a function of shield angle and thickness. It is interesting to note that for Al \rightarrow Al impacts, the following variation of Equation (1) represents the hole minor diameter in the region $20^{\circ} < \alpha \le 90$:

$$\frac{D_{\text{minor}}}{d} = 0.1372 \text{ v sin } \alpha \left\{ \frac{t_A}{d} \right\}^{2/3} + 0.90$$
where $t_A = t_a/\sin \alpha$

Although the perforations are elliptical, the hole major diamete. Is a function of velocity, thickness, and angle; hence no simple adequate expression for actual area can be derived without making gross assumptions. This expression, however, is believed to represent a minimum perforation area and to be especially representative of the damage when $60^\circ < \alpha \le 90^\circ$, for it is in his region that D major major minor

The properties of projectile and target materials also govern hole size. It has been demonstrated that, all else constant, a decrease in the shield strength will produce a larger hole. (Ref. 16) Other physical property variations have produced indeterminate results and no definite correlations are

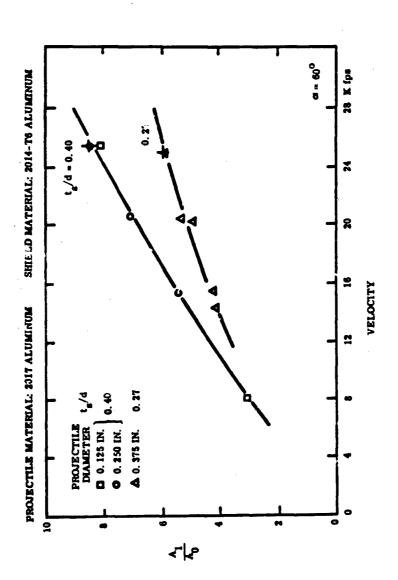


Fig. 15 Shield Damage, $\alpha = 60^{\circ}$, Effect of Variation of Velocity

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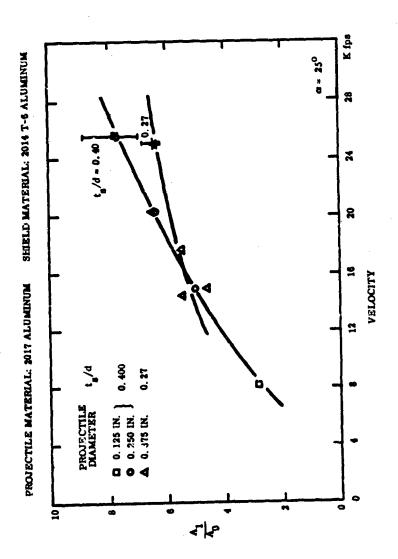


Fig. 16 Shield Damage, a = 25°, Effect of Variation of Velocity

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM

SHIELD MATERIAL: 2014-T6 ALUMINUM

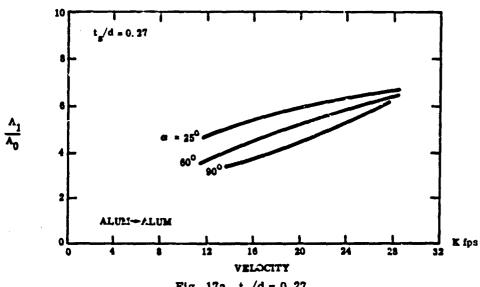


Fig. 17a $t_g/d = 0.27$

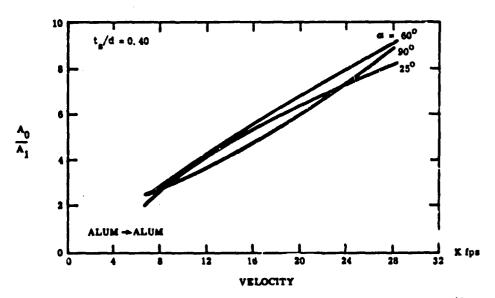


Fig. 17 Shield Damage, Effect of Variation of Velocity, Constant ta/d

available. However, the changes in hole area resulting from the differences in physical properties appear to be insignificant compared to the changes in hole area resulting from different angles of incidence.

2. 4 Target Sheet Analysis

The effect of projectile impact on the shield, or "outer spacecraft shell," has been explored extensively on the preceding pages. The subsequent effects of impact will next be investigated. In certain cases, the second sheet (target sheet) in the analog structure is the main hull – the structural-load-carrying hull. The vulnerability of this sheet, then, is of paramount importance. In review (see Fig. 4), the target sheets for this program have been primarily 0. 109-in. 2014-T6 aluminum, except for a short test series with 0. 028-in., Type 302 stainless steel targets. The spacing between the target sheet and its shield has been varied from 4 to 24 inches, and the angle of incidence β of the target sheet has been set at 90, 60, and 25 degrees.

The spray patterns obtained from a typical sequence of firings using 2017-aluminum spheres are shown in Fig. 18. The spheres are 3/8 inch in diameter, the spacing between the shield and target along the projectile flight line is 21 led es, and the mean projectile velocity is 25,000 fps.

A review of these targets indicates that an appraisal of the damage potential of the spray is so complicated that a qualitative assessment is required. In order to understand the phenomenon, it is therefore necessary to consider first the simplest case, i.e., normal impact, referring both to the shield ($\alpha = 90^{\circ}$) and to the target sheet ($\beta = 90^{\circ}$) behind the shield.

The phenomena of normal hypervelocity impact has been summarized in Section I, and many authors have presented theories and corroborating experimental evidence (Refs. 9 - 13). Suffice to say, then, that impact velocity, more than an, other factor, will affect the target damage resulting from any projectile-shield combination. Typical spray patterns obtained by varying the projectile velocity are shown in Fig. 12. These experiments at different velocities illustrate two important results.

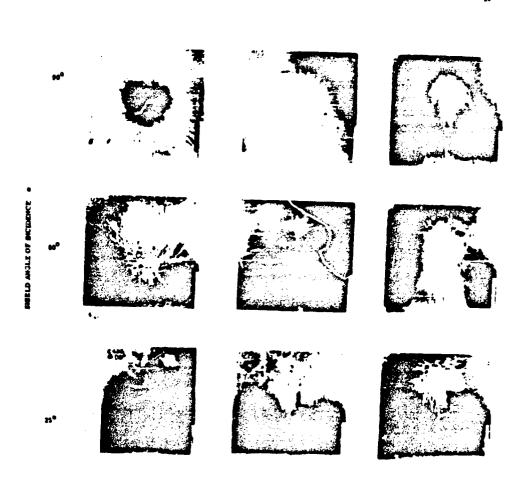
(1) Increased velocity results in more complete fragmentation of both projectile and shield.

X-rays of impact show that at low velocities the projectile suffers very little damage during perforation (see Fig. 19), and that only sparse, large, irregular fragments emanate from the shield. At 25, 300 fps, however, the spray particles emitted from the back of the shield are so minute and diverse that they are difficult to distinguish from the background of the radiograph.

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM D'AMETER. 9, 315 iu VELOCITY: > 25,000 fpm

SHEELD MATURE 11: 2014-T6 ALUMINUM THYCKNESS: 0, 100 in. SPACING: 24 in.

TARGET ANGLE OF INCIDENCE - #



NOTE: TARGET IN LOWER LEFT CURNER III 36" x 54", ALL OTHER TARGETS MOWN ARRIVE ARE NOT AND THE

Fig. 18 Typical Target Spray Patterns (Shields removed), $Al \rightarrow Al$

*- T6 ALUMINUM		٠.	0.27	0.375 IN	-	_	2744 7734 944		V = 25,000 fus
SHIELD MATERIAL: 2014- T6 ALUMINUM	ACING = 12 INCHES		0.27	0. 375 IN.					V = 20,000 fps
17 ALUMINUN:	SHIELD TO TARGE'S SPACING = 12 INCHES		0. 27	0. 375 IN					V · 15,000 (ps
PROJECTILE MATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM			$t_{\rm s}/d \approx 0.40$	d ≥ 0, 125 IN	-				V 8.000 fps

Fig. 19 Typical Target Spray Patterns - Effect of Variation of Velocity

(2) Increased velocity results in a greater dispersal of both projectile and shield fragments.

This result can also be seen in Fig. 19. With each increase in velocity (intersheet spacing constant), a greater target sheet area is affected. This effect of velocity on projectile-shield fragment dispersal is also shown graphically (Fig. 20) for Al \rightarrow Al impacts by plotting projectile- and spall-spray semi-angles for two combinations of projectile and shield. The projectile-spray semi-angle γ is defined here as

$$\gamma = \tan^{-1} \frac{D_p}{2S}$$

where D_p is relevant diameter of damage on the target sheet, and S is intersheet spacing between shield and target, measured along the projectile flight line. The spall-spray semi-angle θ is

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{D_S}{2N}$$

where D_g is relevant damaged diameter centered at the point where a normal drawn from the point of impact on the shield intersects the target, and N is the length of the appropriate perpendicular (in this case where $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$, N = S). Figure 18 and 19, however, show that it is difficult to define a meaningful diameter of damage, and that physical limitations proclude the inclusion of all spall fragments. As a result, the criterion that was chosen provided that approximately 90 percent of the spall damage to the target should fall within the chosen diameter. A typical target with appropriate measurements is shown in Fig. 21.

In addition to demonstrating that fragment dispersion increases with increasing velocity, Fig. 20 shows effects of sheet thickness (t_9/d) on dispersion angles. It can be seen that at high velocities the spall-spray from the thinner target is more concentrated about the flight line, and the maximum dispersion angle is smaller. The projectile-spray angle appears to be independent of such small changes in t_9/d .

An interesting side note is provided by Fig. 22, in which the angles γ and θ are superimposed on a radiograph of a projectile-shield combination $10\,\mu\text{me}$ after impact.

It has been shown that the spray emitted from the rear of the shield a normal incidence is symmetric about the original projectile flight line. Under onditions of oblique impact, however, the spray distribution is deflected from the flight line towards the normal through the center of the perforation. The spray seems to be composed of two patterns:

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM SHIELD MATERIAL: 2014-T6 ALUMINUM

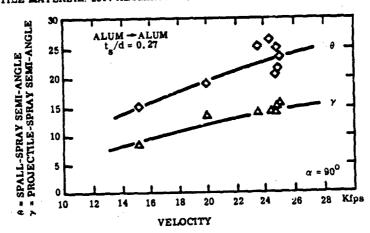


Fig. 20a $t_s/d = 0.27$

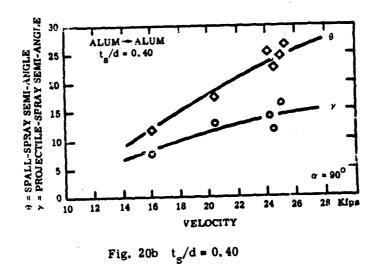
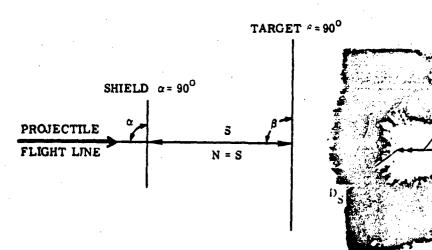


Fig. 20 Spall and Projectile Spray Angle Variation with Velocity ($\alpha = 90^{\circ}$) 30



SHIELD AND TARGET SHEET
LAYOUT SIDE VIEW - SCHEMATIC
(REF. FIG. 4)

TARGET SHEET (SHIELD REMOVED)
FRONT VIEW - ACTUAL
(REF. FIG. 19)

Fig. 21 Analysis of Spall and Projectile Spray Angles

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM SHIELD MATERIAL: 2014-T6 ALUMINUM

DIAMETER: 0.375 IN. VELOCITY: 23,500 fps

θ: 25⁰

t_s/d: 0.27

y: 140 (REF, FIG. 20a)

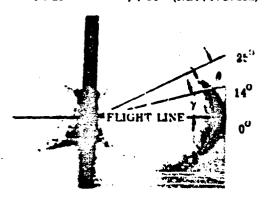


Fig. 22 Superposition of Spray Angles on Typical X-Ray of Projectile-Shield Impact

- (1) Fragments distributed about a normal through the shield (probably resulting from shock propagation through the target, ..., target spall)
- (2) Fragments distributed about the original projectile flight line (conposed mainly of projectile fragments)

The radiographs shown in Fig. 23 illustrate this point. The normal configuration is the same one noted earlier. In this case, the projectile is completely pulverized and spread over so large a surface that it is difficult to distinguish between damage from the projectile and damage from spall fragments. As the shield incident angle α decreases, however, the obliquity or incident angle effect becomes more apparent. Thus, at $\alpha = \beta = 60^\circ$, the two patterns are easily discernible and it can be seen that the spall-spray angle θ has decreased. At $\alpha = \beta = 25^\circ$, the target has nearly defeated the projectile (note the minor damage on the plane of the projectile flight line), and the severe target damage has been caused by the large, irregular pieces of spall ejected normally from the shield surface. These observations have been plotted as $\gamma - \alpha$ and $\theta - \alpha$ for two combinations of projectile and shield (Figs. 24 and 25). In both cases it is apparent that as α is decreased, the target sheets are subjected to spall-spray damage long after the hazard from projectile-spray incesting the shield surface.

Superir posed on the spall-spray curves are the lower limit predictions $(\theta=0)$ found in Table 2. These predictions seem to be in good agreement with the trend of the curves, but further testing will be required to obtain a velocity-dependent T^*/P for 2014-T8 aluminum that may exceed the assumed value of 2.0. (Note: T^* = maximum thickness of target for complete penetration, and P = crater depth of semi-infinite target.)

The lower limit of the projectile-spray curve ($\gamma = 0$) can be predicted by the expression,

$$t_A = d \sqrt{\rho_p/\rho_T}$$
 where $t_A = t_g/\sin \alpha^*$ (Ref. 13)

This simple variation of the proven expression of primary penetration depth (Ref. 15) defines an angle α^* below which there will be no damage from inline spray particles, i.e., no target damage in the direction of the projectile flight line. Typical values of α^* are shown in Table 3.



SPACING: 12 INCHES

0 = 3 + 25°

09 = 8 = 0







FLIGHT LE'E PLANE OF

FLIGHT

CONFIDENTIAL

Fig. 23 Typical Target Patterns - Effect of Variation of Shield Angle

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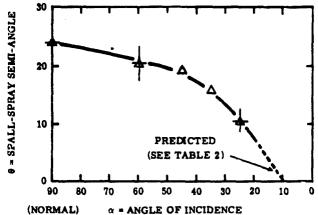


Fig. 24a Spall-Spray Semi-Angle

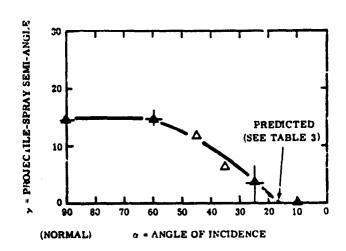


Fig. 24b Projectile-Spray Semi-Angle

Fig. 24 Spall and Projectile Spray Angle Variation with Shield Angle – Al \rightarrow Al ($t_8/d = 0.27$)

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM SHIELD MATERIAL: 2014-T6 ALUMINUM DIAMETER: 0.25 IN $t_g{'}d:0.40$ VELOCITY: 25,500 fps

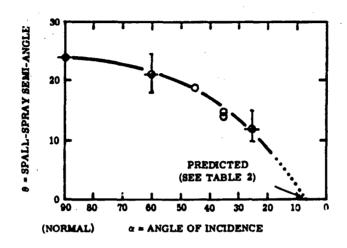


Fig. 25a Spall-Spray Semi-Angle

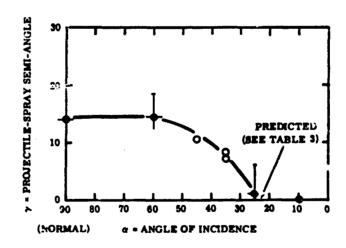


Fig. 25b Projectile-Spray Semi-Angle

Fig. 25 Spall and Projectile Spray Angle Variation with Shield Angle - Al - Al ($t_{\rm g}/d$ = 0.40)

35

Table 3
LIMITING SHIELD ANGLE TO PREVENT PROJECTILE SPRAY DAMAGE

ρ	PT	t _s /d	α*	
(gm/cc)	(gm/cc)	s/-	Experimental	Predicted
2. 70	2.70	0. 27	16 ⁰ (Fig. 24)	15. 5 ⁰
2. 70	2. 70	0. 40	24° (Fig. 25)	23. 6 ⁰
19. 1	1.77	0. 70	$12^{\circ} < \alpha < 15^{(6)}$	12. 3°
8. 90	2. 70	0. 534		17. 2°
8. 90	8. 1	0. 15		8. 2 ⁰

The lack of data precludes experimental predictions of α_1 and α^* for impacts of Ni - Al and Ni - stainless steel; although no data has been plotted, selected points are included in Appendix I.

Figure 26 illustrates the variation with velocity of spall-spray and projectile-spray angles when $\alpha = 60$. The curve trends shown here are similar to those of Fig. 20 for $\alpha = 90$; hence, the conclusions are the same. Insufficient data presents comment on velocity variation when $\alpha = 25$.

2.5 Total Target Vulnerability

The purpose of these tests is to define the vulnerability of the total structure, or system, under set conditions of projectile impact. There is, therefore, an interest in total penetration, because penetration is indicative of (1) the ability of a shield to fragment the projectile, to spread these fragments and reduce their velocities, and (2) the ability of the target sheet to resist these fragments.

Material considerations aside, total penetration is primarily a function of sheet thickness, projectile velocity, and intersheet spacing. (For this report, only total penetrations when $\alpha=\beta=90^{\circ}$ have been plotted. Target damage is shown both pictorially (Fig. 27) and graphically (Fig. 28).) When intersheet spacing is small, target failure takes the form of perforation by projectile and spall fragments, and petalling from the high impulse loads. As the spacing is increased, neither perforation nor petalling occurs. Note that at larger spacings the target sheet is vulnerable to the projectile of greater mass, e.g., when $t_g/d=0.27$ and $t_g=0.160$ in. (Fig. 27).

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM SHIELD MATERIAL: 2014-T6 \LUMINUM

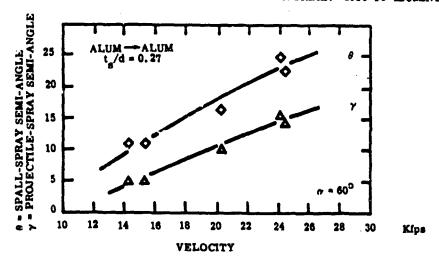


Fig. 26a $t_{p}/d = 0.27$

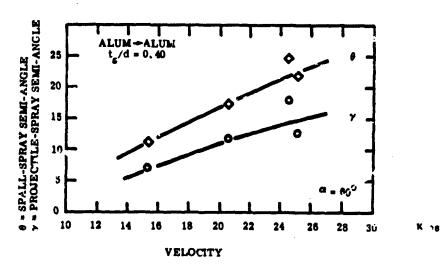


Fig. 26b $t_s/d = 0.40$

Fig. 26 Spall and Projectile Spray Angle Variation with Velocity ($\alpha = 60^{\circ}$)

SHIELD TARGET Z. PROJECTILE NATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM DIAMETER: 0.375 IN. VELOCITY: 25,000 fps BITERSHEET SPACING 4 IN.

MATERIAL: 2014-TS ALUMINUM

24 IN.

12 P.

Tarcet sheets where s = 4 and 5 = 6 are 18 in × 18 in,: Others shown are 36 in. × 36 in.

Typical Ta. Set Patterns - Effect of Variation of Intersheet Spacing Fig. 27

t, /d: 0.27

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM SHIELD: TARGET: MATERIAL: 2014-T6 ALUMINUM WITNESS:

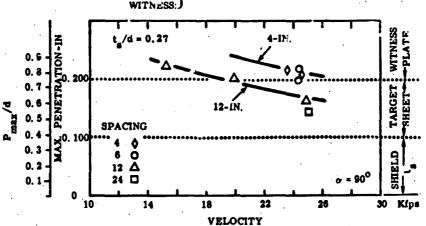


Fig. 28a $t_{a}/d = 0.27$

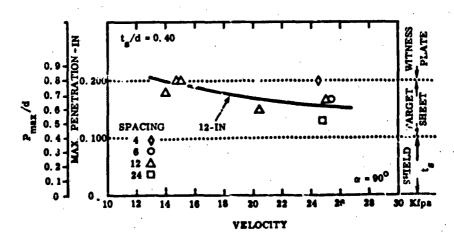


Fig. 28b $t_{\rm m}/d = 0.40$

Fig. 28 Effect of Velocity on Maximum Penetration – Al \rightarrow Al ($\alpha = 90^{\circ}$)

To present an overall picture of the vulnerability of the aluminum analog structures, a ballistic limit approach has been chosen: either perforation or no perforation of the target sheet. Spacings of both 12 and 24 inches have been considered, along with the surmised cause of damage – either projectile fragments or spall. This data is presented in Figs. 29 and 30, which show that as the shield and target impact angles are varied, target sheet failure results from different mechanisms. However, it can be seen that the resultant damage of any configuration is governed primarily by the shield angle α . Since the results for all four cases are similar, discussion is limited to the case where t_8 = 0.27 and intersheet spacing = 12 inches. Under conditions of normal impact, no perforations from either projectile fragments or spall occurred, although the target sheet from the $\alpha=\beta=90^{\circ}$ impact appeared in danger of rupture from projectile-fragment and spall-fragment momentum loading. When $\alpha = 60$, no perforations resulted from spall, although the projectile fragments perforated when $\beta = 60^{\circ}$ and 90. It is felt that the extreme obliquity of the target sheet when $\beta = 25^{\circ}$ defeated these fragments. When $\alpha = 25.0$ the major damage to the target sheets resulted from the irregular spall fragments ejected from the shield; these perforated the target sheet under all conditions. Again, when $\beta = 25.0$ the angle of obliquity of the target sheet was sufficient to defeat the projectile fragments.

With the 0.3-gm 2017 aluminum projectiles and the 0.100-inch 2014-T6 aluminum shield and target as references, two series of tests involving nickel spheres of equivalent mass and Type 302 stainless steel shields and targets of equivalent strength were conducted. Typical results are shown pictorially in Fig. 31 and numerically in Appendix I. It can be seen that in all cases the nickel projectiles are more lethal than the aluminum. A review of the witness sheet penetrations indicates that the stainless steel analog structure is generally less vulnerable than the aluminum when impacted by nickel projectiles. However, a larger sample of materials should be tested before any conclusions are drawn regarding projectile and shield-target physical properties.

2.6 Impact Flash Phenomenon

An investigation of the phenomenon of impact flash was made along wills the hypervelocity impact study. This investigation was to qualitatively determine the pertinent variables affecting impact flash with the ultimate goal of using the information to assess the impact flash phenomenon as a spatial hit detector or target discriminator. Although open-sautter and high-speed framing cameras have provided results concerning total radiant energy and flash duration (Fig. 32), more precise empirical data will be required for the above application. Pursuant to this, a series of photomultiplier detectors, sensitive to visible and near-visible radiation, were chosen for a parametric investigation. (See Section 2.1 for instrumentation details.) During this study, only the peak luminosity Ip displayed on the typical oscilloscope trace (Fig. 32) has been correlated (In is defined as the maximum

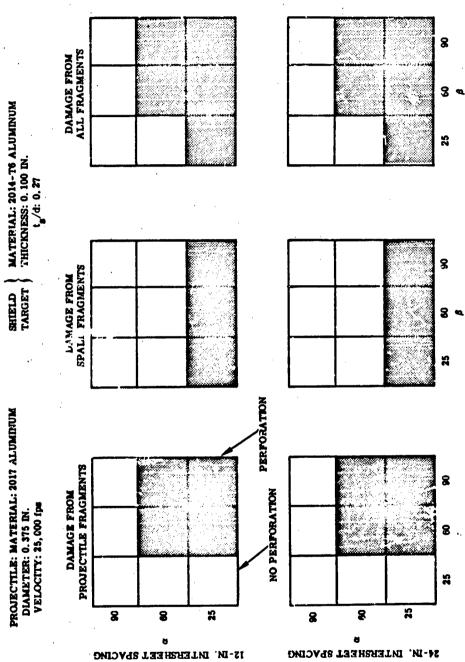
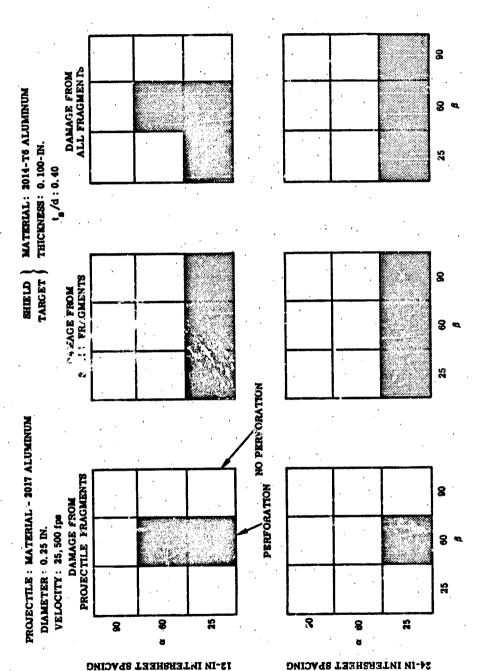


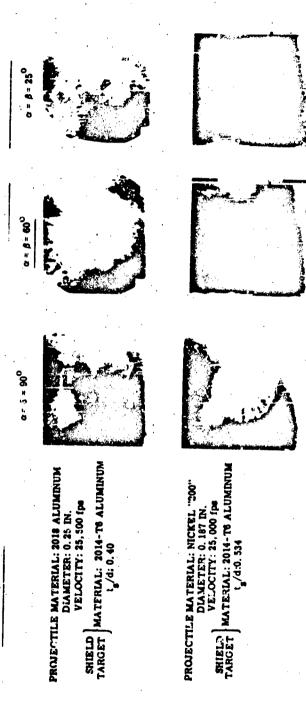
Fig. 29 Vulnerability of Multisbeet Thin Target Assembly, Al \sim Al (t_s/d = 0.27, v = 25,000 ps)

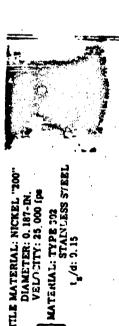
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41



, ulnerability of Multi-heet Thin Target Assambly, Al \rightarrow Al (tg/d = 0.40, v = 25,000 fps) Fig. 30





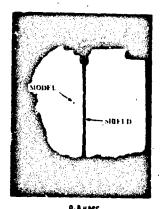
PROJECTILE MATERIAL: NICKEL "200"
DIAMETER: 0. 187-IN.
VELOCITY: 25, 000 fps

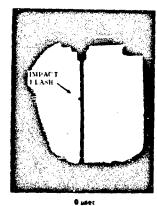
TARGET



INTERSHEET SPACERG - 12 INCHES

Fig. 31 Typical Target Patterns - Effect of Varied Projectile and Target Assembly Materials





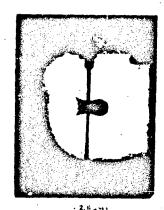
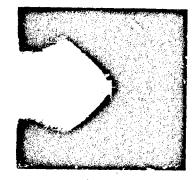


Fig. 32a Typical B/W Framing Camera Sequence of Impact Flash



PROJECTILE FLIGHT LINE

Fig. 32b Typical Open-Shutter Camera Photograph of Impact Flash

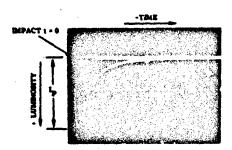


Fig. 32c Typical Oscilloscope Trace Showing Intensity-Time History of Impact Flash

recorded luminosity occurring within the first few microseconds after contact of the projectile with the shield and before any possible interference effects from spall splatter on the target sheet or on the walls of the impact chamber).

Again, since one of the projected uses of the impact flash phenomenon is that of a spatial hit detector or target discriminator, obviously the existence of impact flash under environmental conditions of reduced gas pressure must be proved. To this end, experiments involving Al - Al impacts were conducted in reduced atmospheres of air and helium (the helium simulates an inert atmosphere). It can be seen in Fig. 33, for V-constant, that the peak luminosity is essentially invariant in an inert atmosphere and also that only above 1 torr (mm of Hg) is the surrounding air observed to have any significant effect.

To determine the relationship of the impact flash to the many possible projectile parameters, experiments were conducted in which size and velocity of the projectile varied. Projectile and target materials were limited to those discussed earlier - 2017 Al for the projectile and 2014-T6 Al for the target. Three independent tubes monitored tests with projectiles 0. 125 inch in diameter to determine any dependence of frequency response to velocity. (See Fig. 34.) Liotted log-log, the peak luminosity is shown to vary as the fourth power of velocity, a relationship independent of the monitored frequency. When duta obtained from larger projectiles (0. 25 inch and 0. 375 inch) was compared to that from the 0. 125-inch projectile impacts, the impact flash intensity was found to be a direct function of the area presented by the projectile.

These experimental results confirmed that the following empirical relationship, generated from tests on semi-infinite targets, can be applied to thin sheet impacts under conditions of normal impact.

$$I_{np} = CAv^n$$
 (Ref. 17)

where

 I_{nn} = peak luminosity (see definition), normal impact

A = cross-sectional area of projectile

v = projectile velocity, fps

n = velocity exponent

C = a constant

Within the scope of the experiments conducted, measured values for the coefficient C are listed in Table 3 for Al-Al impacts.

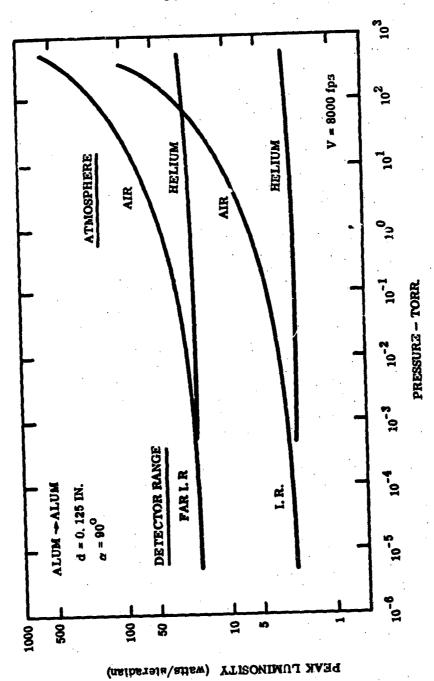


Fig. 33 Reduced Data - Air and Helium Atmospheres - Variation of Peak Juminosity with Range Pressures, Velocity Constant

48.

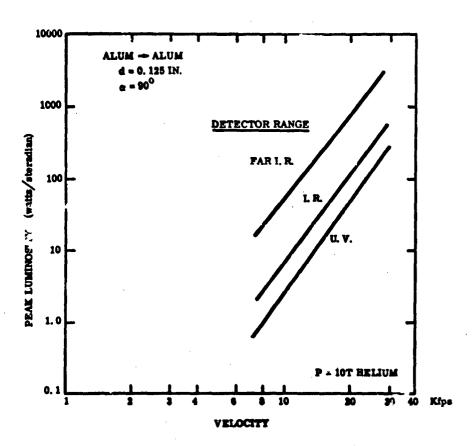


Fig. 34 Variation of Peak Luminosity with Velocity

Table 3 $I_{np} = CAv^{n}$

VALUES OF TERMS FOR AL +AL IMPACTS

DETECTOR RANGE	n	С
0.18μ to 0.55μ	4.2	5. 24 x 10 ⁻¹³
0. 594 μ to 1. 0 μ	4.1	3. 27 x 10 ⁻¹²
1. 0 μ to 5. 5 μ	3. 9	1. 66 x 10 ⁻¹⁰

Note: units of C - watts per steradian/ ft^2 (fps) n

To appraise the effect of target incidence on peak luminosity, two series of tests were fired — one with semi-infinite targets, and the other with thin targets (Fig. 35). Within the limits of the data scatter, no differentiation can be made by the two sets of results. Furthermore, although data trends are indicated at v = 0.000 fps, there seems to be little variation in the peak luminosity (less than one order of magnitude) over the range of tested incident angles. Data from impacts at v = 25,000 fps confirms the velocity-power relationship over the range of tested incident angles.

PROJECTILE MATERIAL: 2017 ALUMINUM SHIELD MATERIAL: 2014-T6 ALUMINUM DIAMETER: 0.125 IN.

P: 10T HELIUM

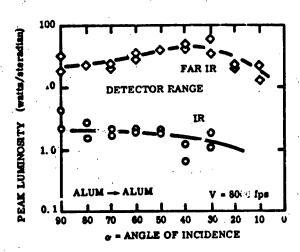


Fig. 35a Semi-Infinite Targets

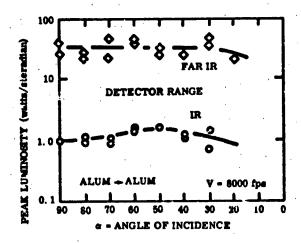


Fig. 35b Thin Targets $-t_3/d = 0.40$

Fig. 35 Reduced Data - Variation of Peak Luminosity with Shield Angle (Semi-Infinite and Thin Targets)

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SECTION III SUMMÄRY

In summary, the data has covered a range of incident angles from 2 to 90 degrees with various projectile-target combinations. Impact velocities have ranged from 8,000 to 25,600 fps, and shield-to-target spacings have varied from 4 to 24 inches. Although these experimental results are specific, they indicate more general behavior trends; thus, the following observations may be made:

- (1) For all projectile-shield material combinations, there is a shield angle below which ricochet occurs and above which perforation occurs. This angle is a function of projectile and shield material, projectile velocity, shield thickness, and impact angle. For Al Al impacts when v = 25,000 fps, this angle is less than 10 degrees. For Ur Mg impacts when v = 23,000 fps and t₈/d = 0.70, it is less than 2 degrees.
- (2) At constant hypervelocity, the ratio of shield perforation area to projectile presented area (A_1/A_0) increases slowly from its value at $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}^0$ (normal) to maximum in the region $\alpha < 60^\circ$, then becreases sharply as $\alpha = 0^\circ$. The magnitude and angular location of this maximum is a function of the projectile and shield materials, projectile velocity, and shield thickness. For any projectile-shield combination, greater damage is sustained by the thicker shield (velocity constant).
- (3) For normal impacts, the perforation area ratio (A_1/A_0) increases with approximately the first power of the impact velocity. However, for shield incident angles other than normal, although the perforation ratio (A_1/A_0) increases with volocity, the rate of increase decreases with increasing velocity.
- (4) Increased velocity results in more complete fragmentation of both projectile and shield, and in a greater dispersal of these fragment dispersal increases with an increase in shield thickness.
- (5) Although spray angles are very difficult to define accurately, certain conclusions regarding their general behavior can be made. The projectile spray angle γ approaches zero degrees at some impact angle α* where α*>0° (velocity constant). This angle (α*) may be predicted empirically using the shaped-charge primary penetratic formula. The spall-spray angle θ also decreases with decreased angle of incidence (velocity constant). Its lower limit may be predicted when it is considered that perforation ceases to occur when θ = 0.

- (6) Total penetration of target structure has been shown to be a function of
 - (a) projectile and target materials
 - (b) projectile velocity
 - (c) intersheet spacing
 - (d) shield and target sheet angles of incidence

Of all the variables considered, shield and target angle are the most critical, since rarely will a conical or cylindrical space-craft be struck normally. It has been shown that damage to any target structure is primarily governed by the shield angle, α . To illustrate: with $\nu=25,000$ fps and $\nu=12$ inches, no target sheet perforation was noted with the shield normal to the projectile attack. When the shield angle was set at 25 degret, however, the target sheet was perforated in all cases, regardless of orientation.

- (7) The investigation of the phenomenon of impact flash may be summarized as follows:
 - (a) Peak luminosity is independent of pressure in an inert a.mosphere, and only above 1 torr is the surrounding air observed to have any significant effect.
 - (b) With normal impact, peak luminosity is a direct function of the projectile presented area.
 - (c) Peak luminosity (within the scope of the experiment)'s independent of target sheet thickness. It should be noted that no lests have been performed using extremely thin foils as targets.
 - (d) Feak luminosity has a power relationship with velocity. For Al →Al impacts, I_D œv.
 - (e) Peak luminosity does not change significantly with changes of projectile impact angle.
 - (f) Peak luminosity is independent of viewing angle.

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APPENDIX I

<u>DATA</u> HYPERVELOCITY IMPACT DAMAGE

The following tables present the raw data gathered under the experimental portion of the program. The units are as follows:

(1) All length measurements: inches

(2) Velocity: feet-per-second

(3) Weight: grams

(4) Area: square inches

The errors on the data are us follows:

(1) Projectile weight: ± .005 gram

(2) Projectile diameter: ± .0005 inch

(3) Projectile velocity: ± 1%

(4) Sheet thickness: ±.001 inch

(5) Sheet spacing: ± .125 inch

(6) All hole and crater diamensions: ± .001 inch

The measurements $\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{p}}$ and $\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{s}}$ (in inches) are defined in the text.

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APPENDIX II

DATA

IMPACT FLASH PHENOMENON

The following tables present the raw data gathered under the experimental portion of the program. The units are as follows:

(1) Pressure: torr (mm of Hg)

(2) OD: inches

(3) Impact velocity: feet-per-second

(4) I_p: watts per steradian

(5) t_{peak}: microseconds

Instrumentation identification is as follows:

Chan	Instrument Range	Viewing Angle
1	1μ to 5. 5μ	Normal to flight line
2	1μ to 5. 5μ	Flight line (parallel)
3	0. 594μ to 1 μ	Normal to flight line
4	0. 594μ to 1 μ	Flight line (parallel)
4A	0. 45μ to 1 μ	Flight line (parallel)
5	0. 18μ to 0. 55 μ	Flight line (parallel)

Numbers in parentheses (e.g., (10%)), refer to neutral density filter factors. An "S" after I results indicates that the channel was saturated and hence data is doubtful.

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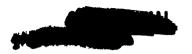
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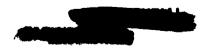


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